

Unit 5 Heredity

Chapter 11: Mendel and the Gene Idea

Overview: Drawing from the Deck of Genes

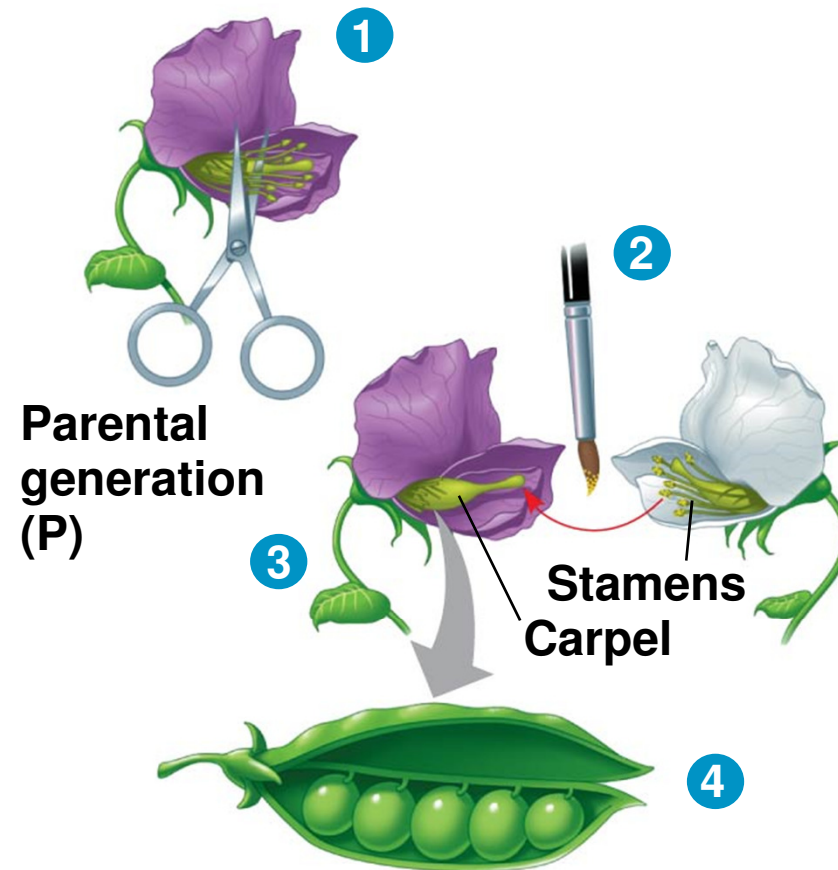
- What genetic principles account for the passing of traits from parents to offspring?
 - The “blending” hypothesis is the idea that genetic material from the two parents blends together (the way blue and yellow paint blend to make green)
 - The “particulate” hypothesis is the idea that parents pass on discrete heritable units (genes)
- Mendel documented a particulate mechanism through his experiments with garden peas

Concept 11.1: Mendel used the scientific approach to identify two laws of inheritance

- Mendel discovered the basic principles of heredity by breeding garden peas in carefully planned experiments
- Mendel probably chose to work with peas because
 - There are many varieties with distinct heritable features, or **characters** (such as flower color)
 - Character variants (such as purple or white flowers) are called **traits**
 - He could control mating between plants

Figure 11.2

Technique



Results

First filial
generation
offspring
(F₁)



-
- Mendel chose to track only characters that occurred in two distinct alternative forms
 - He also used varieties that were **true-breeding**
 - Plants that produce offspring of the same variety when they self-pollinate
 - In a typical experiment, Mendel mated two contrasting, true-breeding varieties
 - A process called **hybridization**
 - The true-breeding parents are the **P generation**
 - The hybrid offspring of the P generation are called the **F₁ generation**
 - When F₁ individuals self-pollinate or cross-pollinate with other F₁ hybrids, the **F₂ generation** is produced

The Law of Segregation

- When Mendel crossed contrasting, true-breeding white- and purple-flowered pea plants
 - All of the F_1 hybrids were purple
- When Mendel crossed the F_1 hybrids
 - Many of the F_2 plants had purple flowers, but some had white
- Mendel discovered a ratio of about three to one, purple to white flowers, in the F_2 generation

Figure 11.3-3

Experiment

P Generation
(true-breeding
parents)



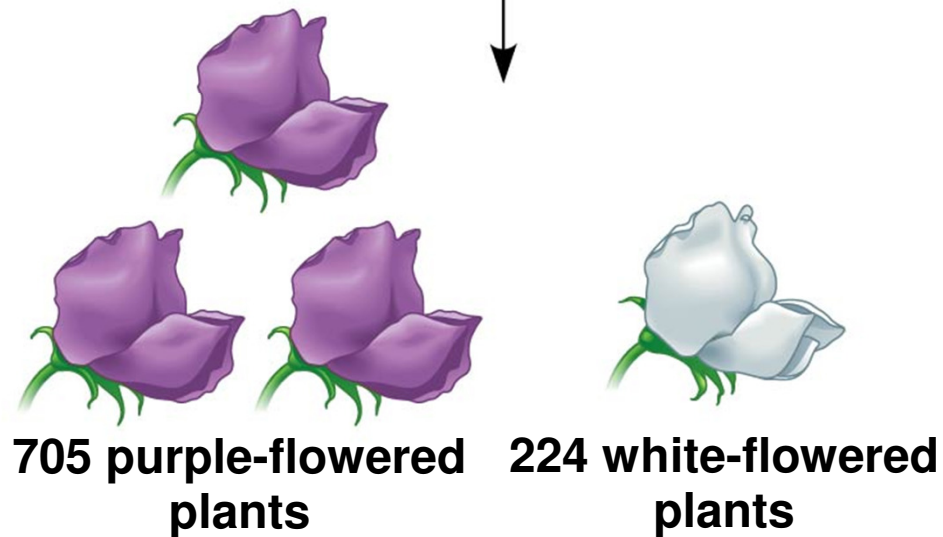
F₁ Generation
(hybrids)



All plants had purple flowers















Self- or cross-pollination

F₂ Generation



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- Mendel reasoned that in the F_1 plants, the heritable factor for white flowers was hidden or masked in the presence of the purple-flower factor
 - He called the purple flower color a *dominant* trait and the white flower color a *recessive* trait
 - The factor for white flowers was not diluted or destroyed because it reappeared in the F_2 generation
 - Mendel observed the same pattern of inheritance in six other pea plant characters, each represented by two traits
 - What Mendel called a “heritable factor” is what we now call a *gene*

Table 11.1

Table 11.1 The Results of Mendel's F ₁ Crosses for Seven Characters in Pea Plants					
Character	Dominant Trait	×	Recessive Trait	F ₂ Generation Dominant: Recessive	Ratio
Flower color	Purple 	×	White 	705:224	3.15:1
Seed color	Yellow 	×	Green 	6,022:2,001	3.01:1
Seed shape	Round 	×	Wrinkled 	5,474:1,850	2.96:1
Pod shape	Inflated 	×	Constricted 	882:299	2.95:1
Pod color	Green 	×	Yellow 	428:152	2.82:1
Flower position	Axial 	×	Terminal 	651:207	3.14:1
Stem length	Tall 	×	Dwarf 	787:277	2.84:1

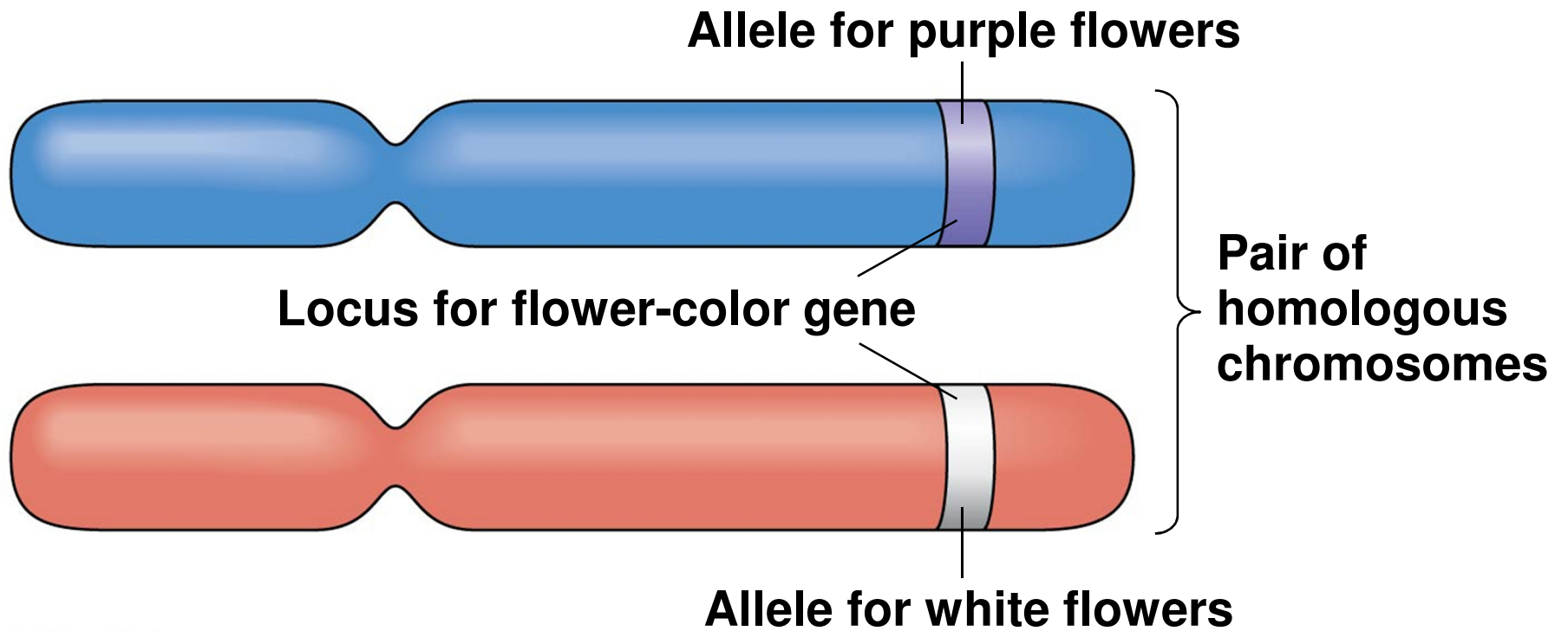
Mendel's Model

- Mendel developed a model to explain the 3:1 inheritance pattern he observed in F_2 offspring
- Four related concepts make up this model

1. First, *alternative versions of genes account for variations in inherited characters*

- For example, the gene for flower color in pea plants exists in two versions, one for purple flowers and the other for white flowers
- These alternative versions of a gene are now called **alleles**
- Each gene resides at a specific locus on a specific chromosome

Figure 11.4



2. Second, *for each character, an organism inherits two alleles, one from each parent*

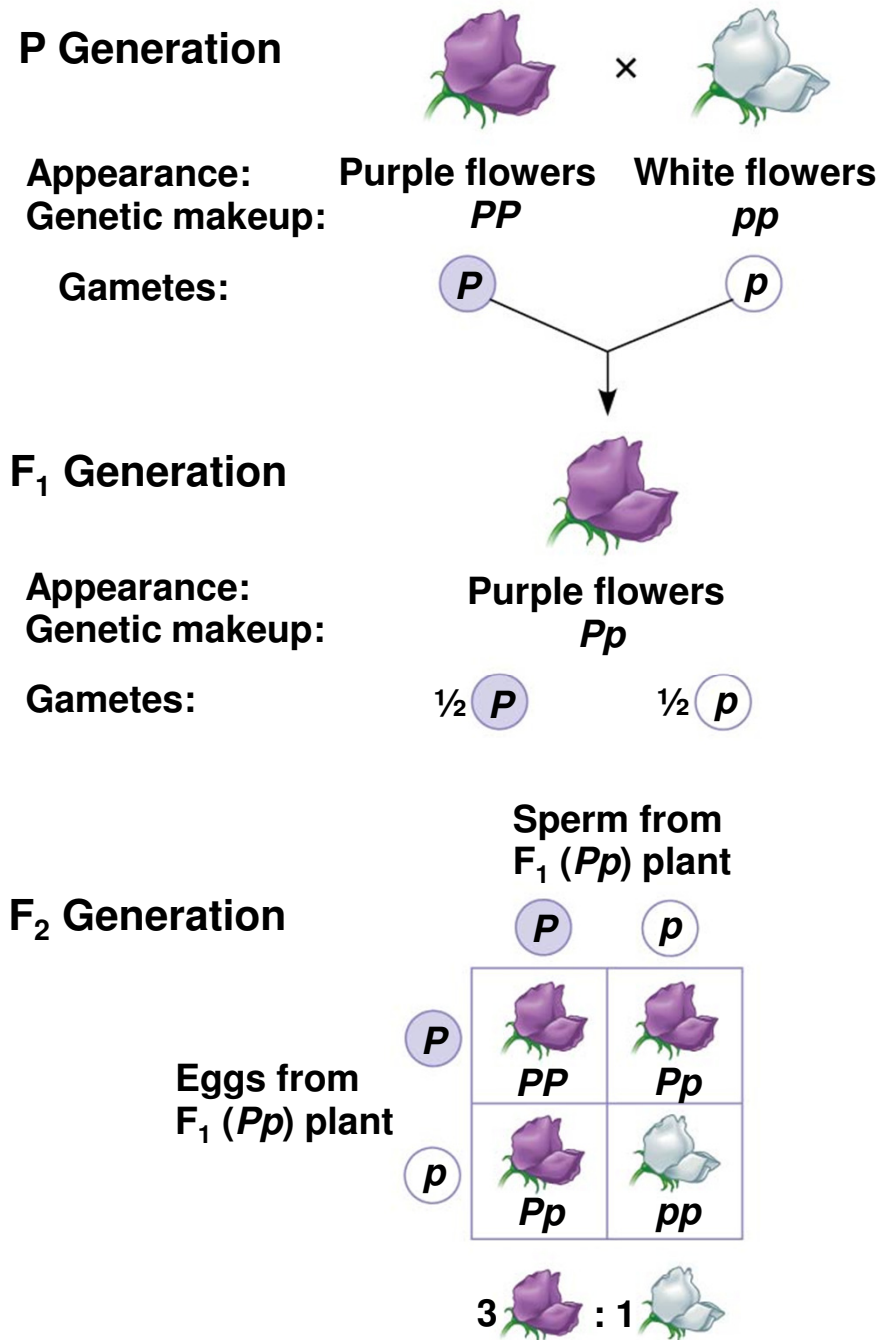
- Mendel made this deduction without knowing about the existence of chromosomes
- Genetic locus is actually represent twice in a diploid cell
 - Once on each homolog of a specific pair of chromosomes
- Two alleles at a particular locus may be identical, as in the true-breeding plants of Mendel's P generation
- Alternatively, the two alleles at a locus may differ, as in the F₁ hybrids

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3. Third, *if the two alleles at a locus differ, then one (the **dominant allele**) determines the organism's appearance, and the other (the **recessive allele**) has no noticeable effect on appearance*
- In the flower-color example, the F_1 plants had purple flowers because the allele for that trait is dominant

4. Fourth, *the two alleles for a heritable character separate (segregate) during gamete formation and end up in different gametes*

- Now known as the **law of segregation**
- Thus, an egg or a sperm gets only one of the two alleles that are present in the organism
- This segregation of alleles corresponds to the distribution of homologous chromosomes to different gametes in meiosis

Figure 11.5-3



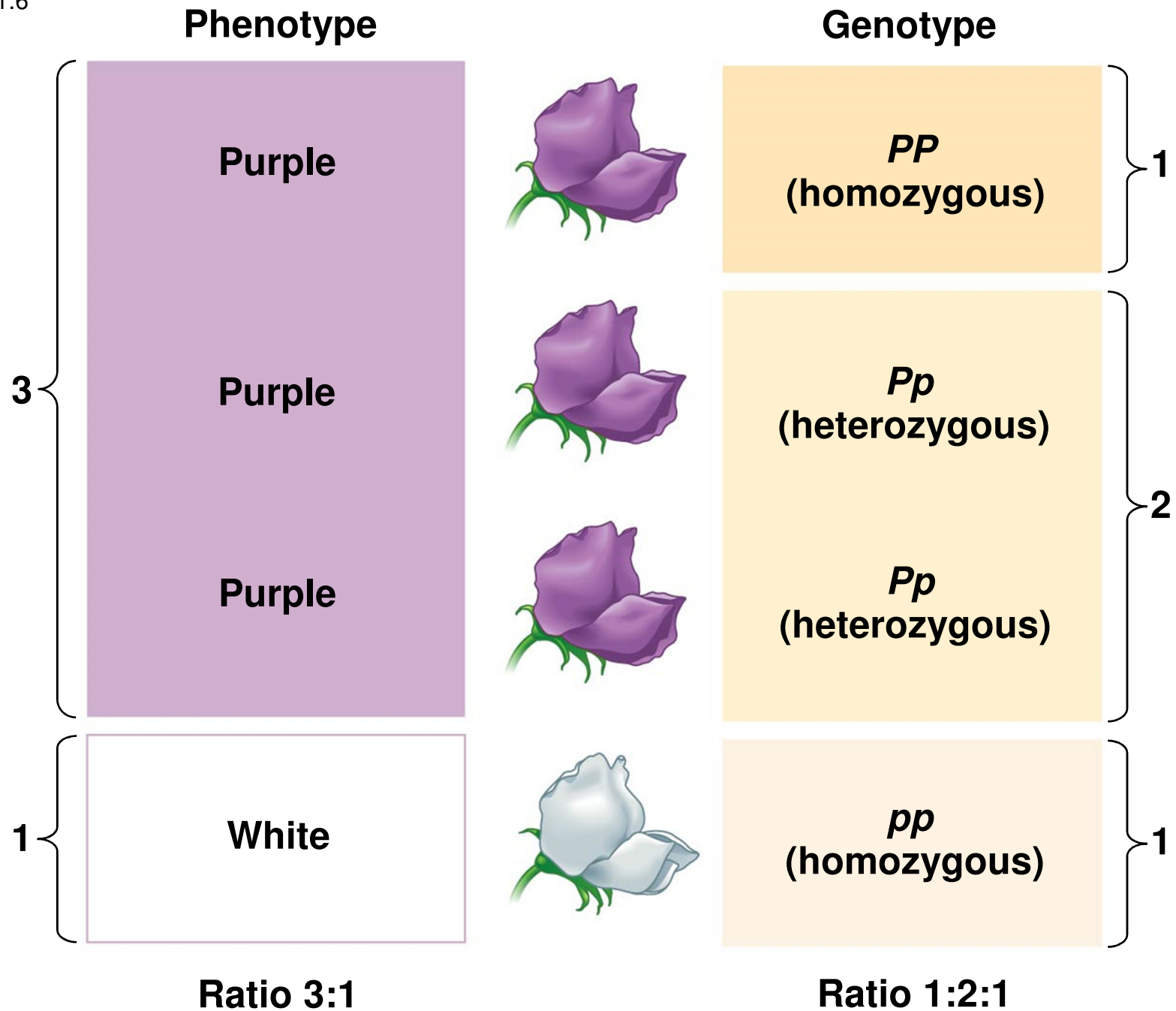
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- Mendel's segregation model accounts for the 3:1 ratio he observed in the F_2 generation of his numerous crosses
 - The possible combinations of sperm and egg can be shown using a **Punnett square**
 - A diagram for predicting the results of a genetic cross between individuals of known genetic makeup
 - A capital letter represents a dominant allele, and a lowercase letter represents a recessive allele
 - For example, P is the purple-flower allele
 - And p is the white-flower allele

Useful Genetic Vocabulary

- An organism with two identical alleles for a character is said to be **homozygous** for the gene controlling that character
- An organism that has two different alleles for a gene is said to be **heterozygous** for the gene controlling that character
- Unlike homozygotes, heterozygotes are not true-breeding!

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- Because of the effects of dominant and recessive alleles, an organism's traits do not always reveal its genetic composition
 - Therefore, we distinguish between an organism's **phenotype**, or physical appearance, and its **genotype**, or genetic makeup
 - In the example of flower color in pea plants, PP and Pp plants have the same phenotype (purple) but different genotypes

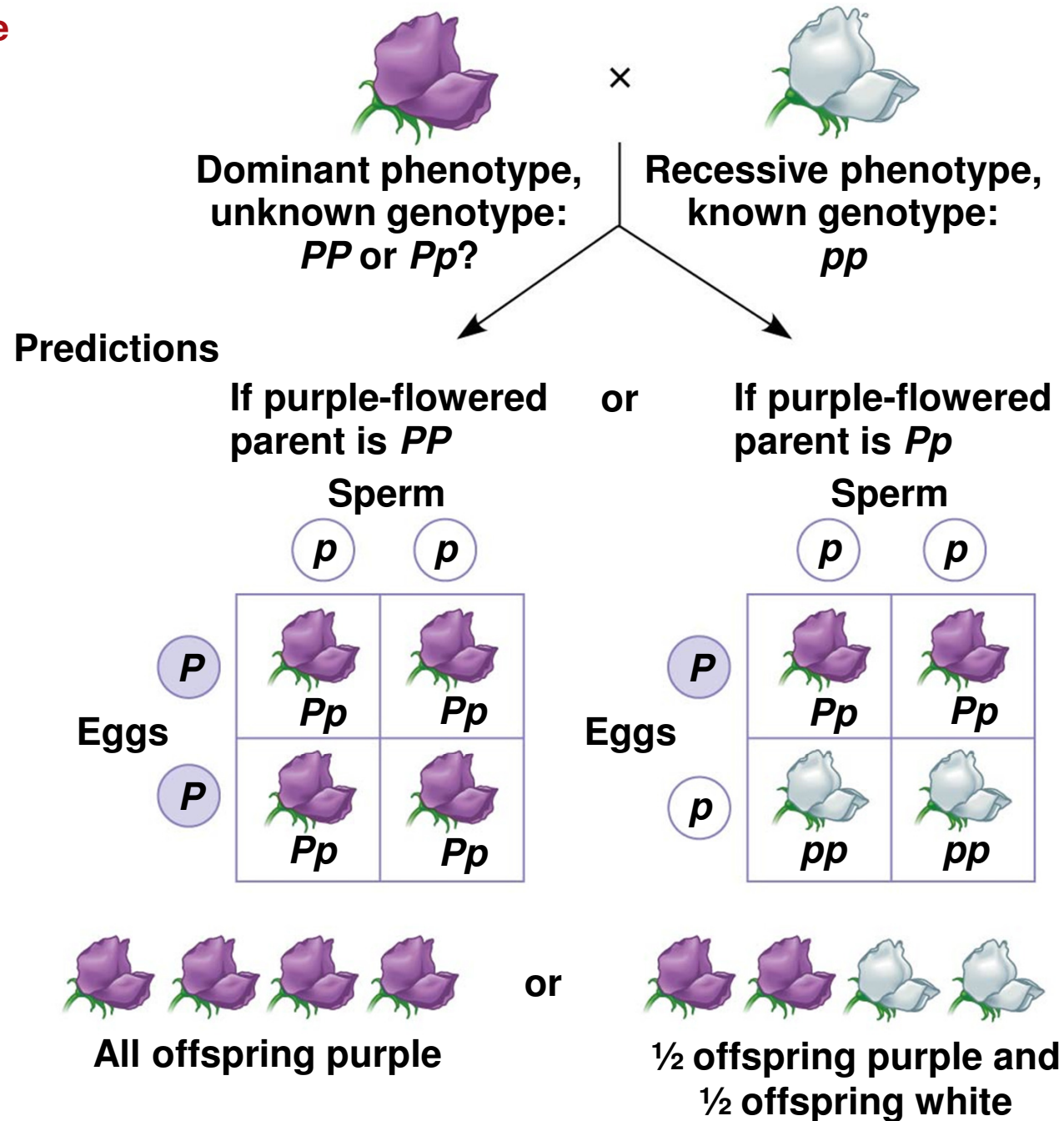
Figure 11.6



The Testcross

- How can we tell the genotype of an individual with the dominant phenotype?
 - Such an individual could be either homozygous dominant or heterozygous
- The answer is to carry out a **testcross**
 - Breeding the mystery individual with a homozygous recessive individual
- If any offspring display the recessive phenotype, the mystery parent must be heterozygous

Figure 11.7 **Technique**



The Law of Independent Assortment

- Mendel derived the law of segregation by following a single character
- The F_1 offspring produced in this cross were **monohybrids**
 - Individuals that are heterozygous for one character
- A cross between such heterozygotes is called a **monohybrid cross**
 - Results in a phenotypic ratio of 3:1

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- Mendel identified his second law of inheritance by following two characters at the same time
 - Crossing two true-breeding parents differing in two characters produces **dihybrids** in the F_1 generation
 - Heterozygous for both characters
 - A **dihybrid cross** is cross between F_1 dihybrids
 - Can determine whether two characters are transmitted to offspring as a package or independently
 - Results in phenotypic ratio of 9:3:3:1

Figure 11.8a

Experiment

P Generation

F₁ Generation

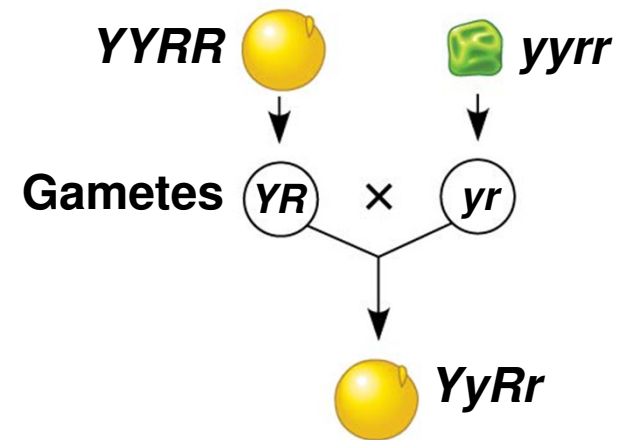
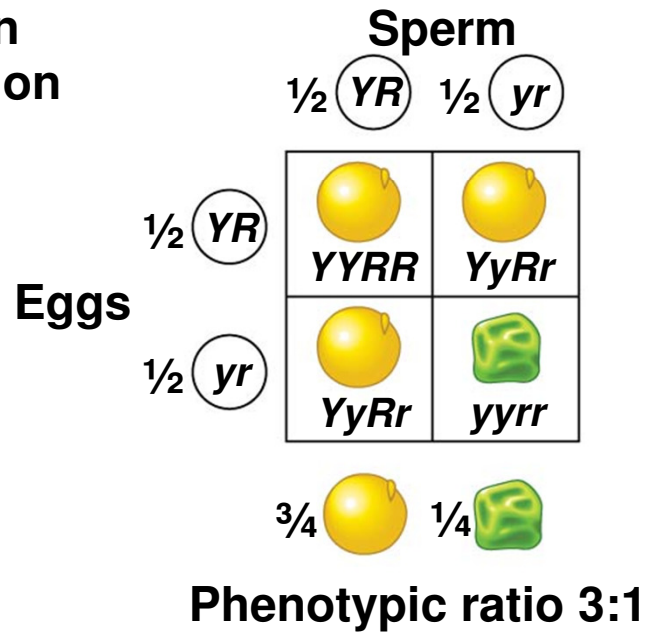


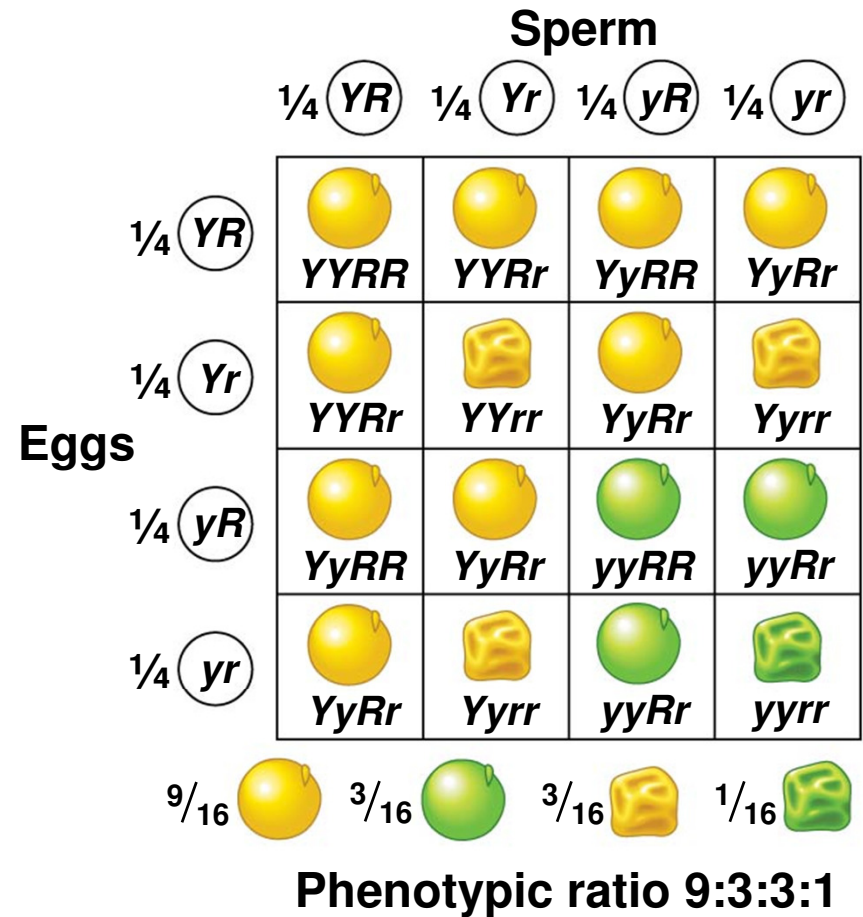
Figure 11.8b

Hypothesis of dependent assortment

Predicted offspring in F₂ generation



Hypothesis of independent assortment



Results

315  108  101  32 

Phenotypic ratio approximately 9:3:3:1

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- The results of Mendel's dihybrid experiments are the basis for the **law of independent assortment**
 - It states that each pair of alleles segregates independently of each other pair of alleles during gamete formation
 - This law applies to genes on different, nonhomologous chromosomes or those far apart on the same chromosome
 - Genes located near each other on the same chromosome tend to be inherited together

Concept 11.2: The laws of probability govern Mendelian inheritance

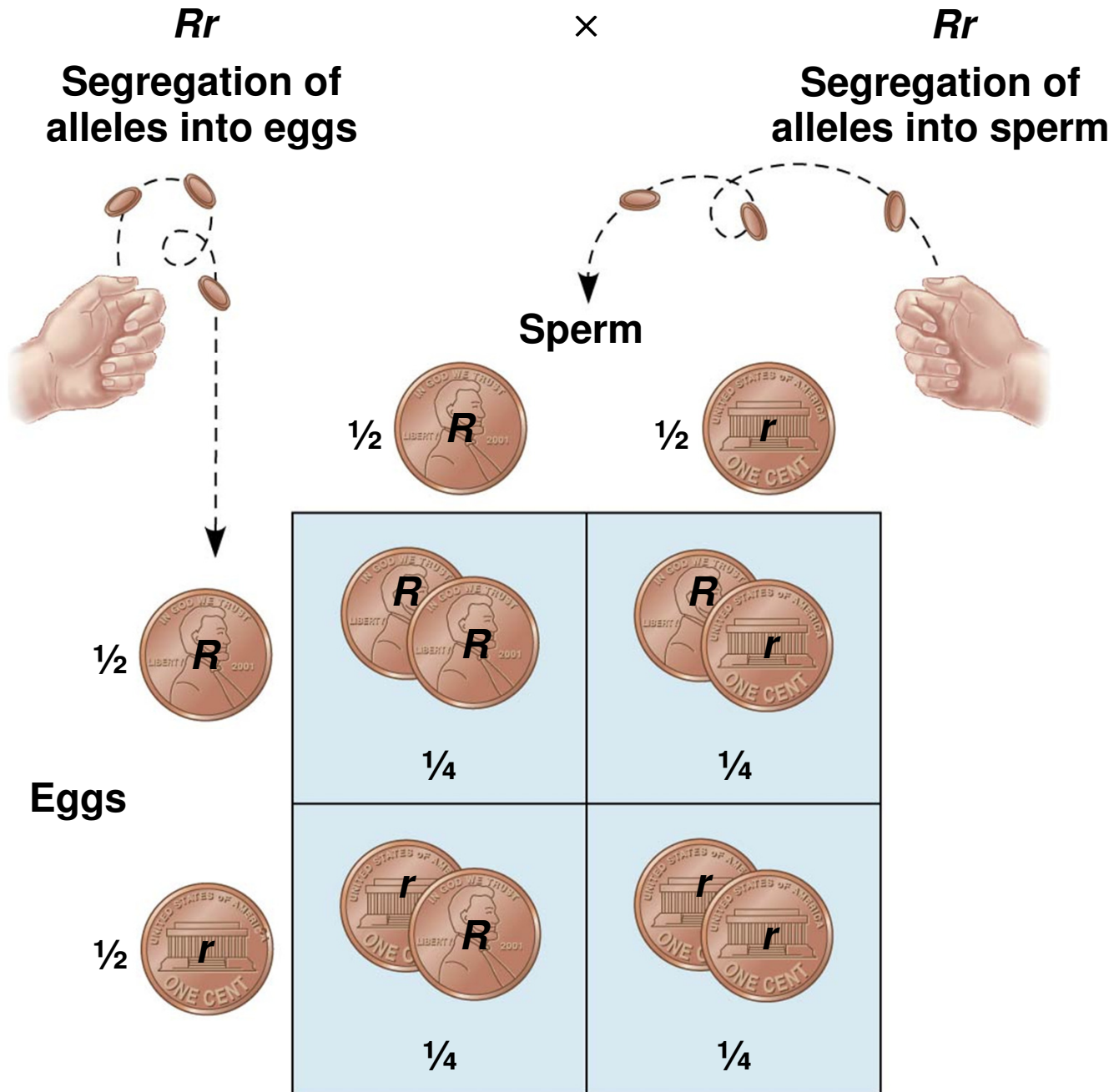
- Mendel's laws of segregation and independent assortment reflect the rules of probability
- When tossing a coin, the outcome of one toss has no impact on the outcome of the next toss
 - Independent events
- In the same way, the alleles of one gene segregate into gametes independently of another gene's alleles

The Multiplication and Addition Rules Applied to Monohybrid Crosses

- The **multiplication rule** states that the probability that two or more independent events will occur together is the product of their individual probabilities
 - Multiply the probability of one event by the probability of the other event
 - Ex: What is the probability that two coins will both land heads up?
 - Probability of heads = $\frac{1}{2}$
 - $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$

-
- This can be applied to an F_1 monohybrid cross
 - Segregation in a heterozygous plant is like flipping a coin
 - Each gamete has a $\frac{1}{2}$ chance of carrying the dominant allele
 - And a $\frac{1}{2}$ chance of carrying the recessive allele

Figure 11.9



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- The **addition rule** states that the probability that any one of two or more mutually exclusive events will occur is calculated by adding together their individual probabilities
 - It can be used to figure out the probability that an F_2 plant from a monohybrid cross will be heterozygous rather than homozygous
 - For a heterozygous F_2 plant, the dominant allele can come from the egg OR the sperm, but not from both
 - IE-mutually exclusive
 - $\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$

Solving Complex Genetics Problems with the Rules of Probability

- We can apply the rules of probability to predict the outcome of crosses involving multiple characters
- A dihybrid or other multicharacter cross is equivalent to two or more independent monohybrid crosses occurring simultaneously
- In calculating the chances for various genotypes, each character is considered separately, and then the individual probabilities are multiplied

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- For example, if we cross F_1 heterozygotes of genotype $YyRr$, we can calculate the probability of different genotypes among the F_2 generation
 - Probability of $YYRR$
 - $\frac{1}{4}$ (Probability of YY) \times $\frac{1}{4}$ (RR) = $\frac{1}{16}$
 - Probability of $YyRR$
 - $\frac{1}{2}$ (Yy) \times $\frac{1}{4}$ (RR) = $\frac{1}{8}$

-
- For example, for the cross $PpYyRr \times Ppyyrr$, we can calculate the probability of offspring showing at least two recessive traits
 - $ppyyRr = \frac{1}{4} (pp) \times \frac{1}{2} (yy) \times \frac{1}{2} (Rr) = 1/16$
 - $ppYyrr = \frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = 1/16$
 - $Ppyyrr = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = 2/16$
 - $PPyyrr = \frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = 1/16$
 - $ppyyrr = \frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = 1/16$
 - Added together = $6/16$ or $3/8$

Concept 11.3: Inheritance patterns are often more complex than predicted by simple Mendelian genetics

- Not all heritable characters are determined as simply as the traits Mendel studied
- However, the basic principles of segregation and independent assortment apply even to more complex patterns of inheritance

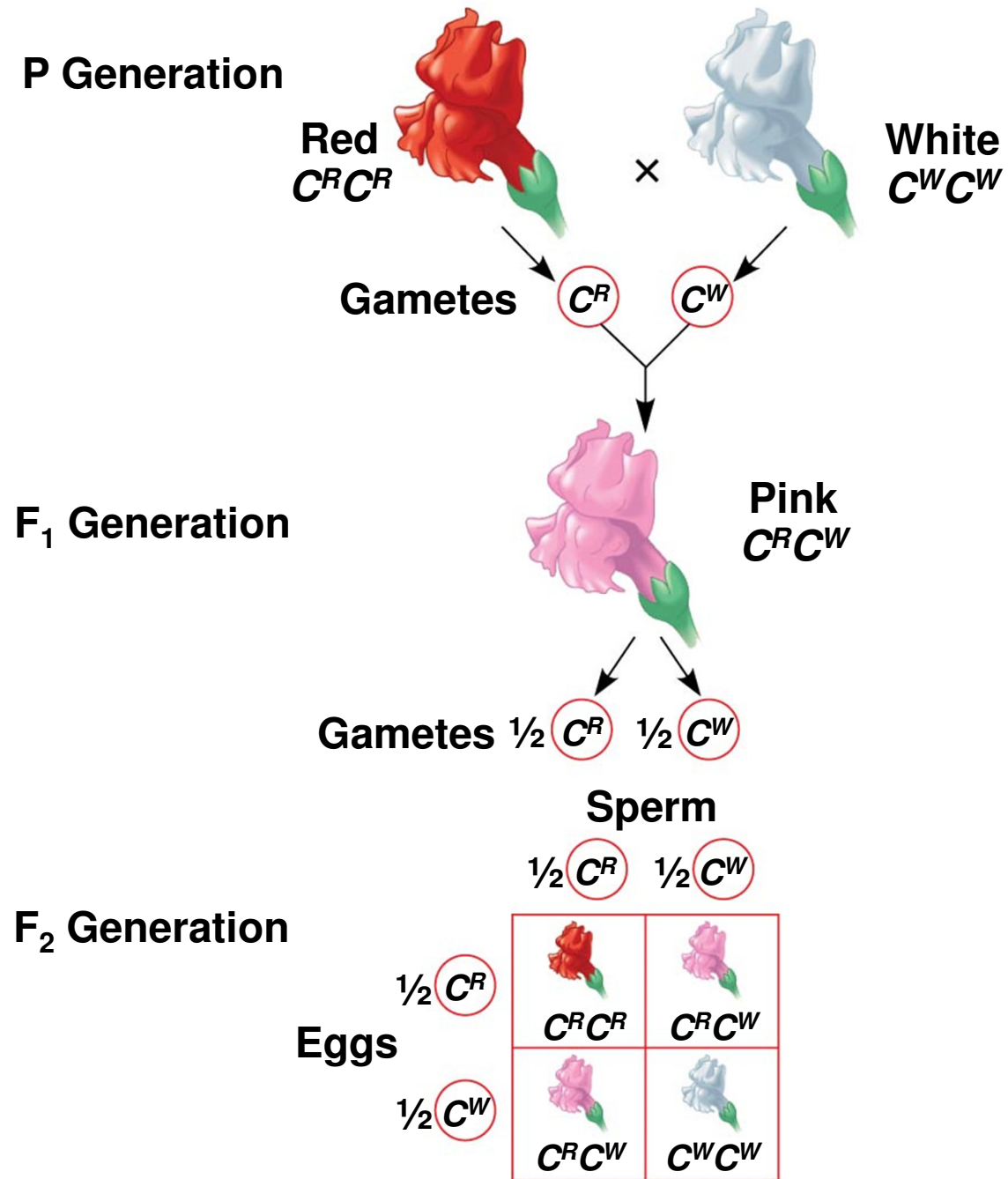
Extending Mendelian Genetics for a Single Gene

- Inheritance of characters by a single gene may deviate from simple Mendelian patterns in the following situations
 - When alleles are not completely dominant or recessive
 - When a gene has more than two alleles
 - When a single gene influences multiple phenotypes

Degrees of Dominance

- **Complete dominance** occurs when phenotypes of the heterozygote and dominant homozygote are identical
- In **incomplete dominance**, the phenotype of heterozygote is an intermediate somewhere between the phenotypes of the two parental varieties
 - Ex: Flower color in snapdragons
 - RR = Red, WW = White, RW = Pink
- In **codominance**, the phenotypes of both alleles are fully expressed in the heterozygote
 - Ex: Coat color in cattle
 - RR = Red, WW = White, RW = Roan (Red AND White)

Figure 11.10-3



The Relationship Between Dominance and Phenotype

- Alleles are simply variations in a gene's nucleotide sequence
- When a dominant allele coexists with a recessive allele in a heterozygote, they do not actually interact at all
 - It is in the pathway from genotype to phenotype that dominance and recessiveness come into play

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- Ex: Round vs wrinkled pea seeds
 - Dominant allele codes for enzyme that converts starch from unbranched to branched
 - Recessive allele codes for defective form of enzyme, leading to more unbranched starch
 - Causes extra water to enter seed
 - Seed wrinkles when it dries
 - One dominant allele results in enough enzyme synthesizing branched starch
 - Both the dominant homozygote and heterozygote have the same phenotype of round seeds

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- For any character, dominant/recessive relationships of alleles depend on the level at which we examine the phenotype
 - **Tay-Sachs disease** is a fatal disorder resulting from a dysfunctional enzyme causing an accumulation of lipids in the brain
 - At the *organismal* level, the allele is recessive
 - At the *biochemical* level, the phenotype (i.e., the enzyme activity level) is incompletely dominant
 - At the *molecular* level, the alleles are codominant



Frequency of Dominant Alleles


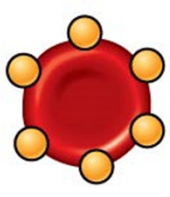

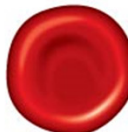
- Dominant alleles are not necessarily more common in populations than recessive alleles
 - Ex: One baby out of 400 in the United States is born with extra fingers or toes, a dominant trait called polydactyly

Multiple Alleles

- Most genes exist in populations in more than two allelic forms
- For example, the four phenotypes of the ABO blood group in humans are determined by three alleles of the gene: I^A , I^B , and i .
- The enzyme (I) adds specific carbohydrates to the surface of blood cells
 - I^A adds the A carbohydrate
 - I^B adds the B carbohydrate
 - i allele adds neither

Figure 11.11

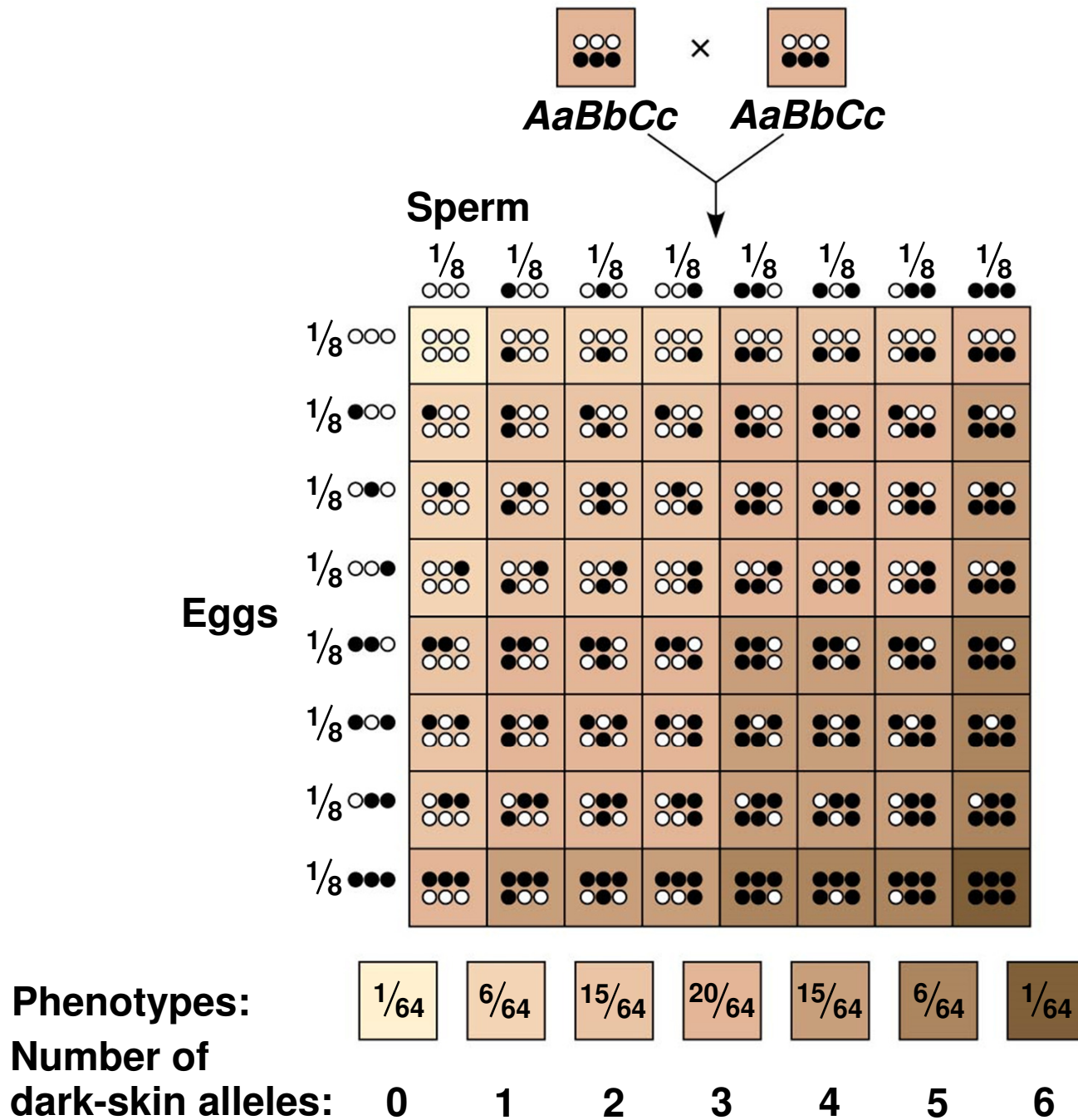
(a) The three alleles for the ABO blood groups and their carbohydrates			
Allele	I^A	I^B	i
Carbohydrate	A 	B 	none

(b) Blood group genotypes and phenotypes				
Genotype	$I^A I^A$ or $I^A i$	$I^B I^B$ or $I^B i$	$I^A I^B$	ii
Red blood cell appearance				
Phenotype (blood group)	A	B	AB	O

Extending Mendelian Genetics for Two or More Genes

- Some traits may be determined by two or more genes
- **Quantitative characters** are those that vary in the population along a continuum
- Quantitative variation usually indicates **polygenic inheritance**
 - An additive effect of two or more genes on a single phenotype
- Skin color in humans is an example of polygenic inheritance
 - Note: Environmental factors, such as sun exposure, can also affect skin-color phenotype

Figure 11.13



Nature and Nurture: The Environmental Impact on Phenotype

- Another departure from Mendelian genetics arises when the phenotype for a character depends on environment as well as genotype
- The phenotypic range is generally broadest for polygenic characters
- Such characters are called **multifactorial** because genetic and environmental factors collectively influence phenotype

Integrating a Mendelian View of Heredity and Variation

- An organism's phenotype includes its physical appearance, internal anatomy, physiology, and behavior
- An organism's phenotype reflects its overall genotype and unique environmental history

Concept 11.4: Many human traits follow Mendelian patterns of inheritance

- Humans are not good subjects for genetic research
 - Generation time is too long
 - Parents produce relatively few offspring
 - Breeding experiments are unacceptable
- However, basic Mendelian genetics endures as the foundation of human genetics

Pedigree Analysis

- A **pedigree** is a family tree that describes the interrelationships of parents and children across generations
- Inheritance patterns of particular traits can be traced and described using pedigrees
- Pedigrees can also be used to make predictions about future offspring
- We can use the multiplication and addition rules to predict the probability of specific phenotypes

Figure 11.14a

Key

□ Male

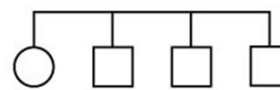
■ Affected male

○ Female

● Affected female

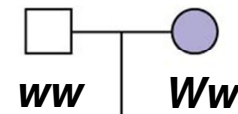
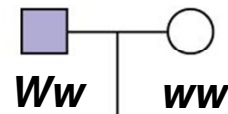


Mating

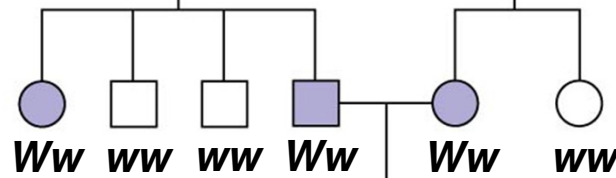


Offspring, in
birth order
(first-born on left)

1st generation
(grandparents)



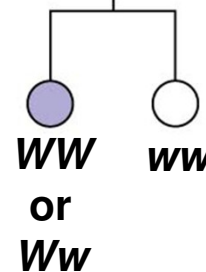
2nd generation
(parents, aunts,
and uncles)



3rd generation
(two sisters)



Widow's peak



No widow's peak

(a) Is a widow's peak a dominant or recessive trait?

Figure 11.14b

Key

□ Male

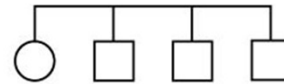
■ Affected male

○ Female

● Affected female

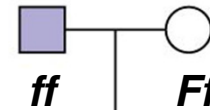
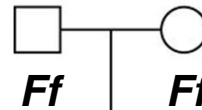


Mating

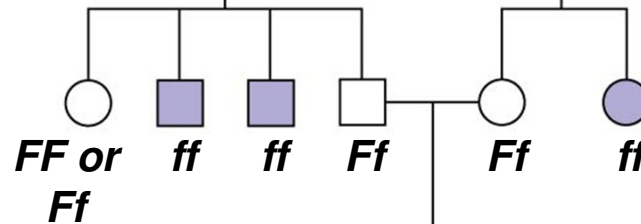


Offspring, in birth order (first-born on left)

1st generation (grandparents)



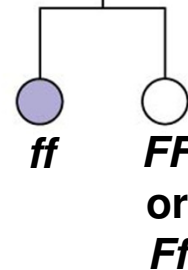
2nd generation (parents, aunts, and uncles)



3rd generation (two sisters)



Attached earlobe



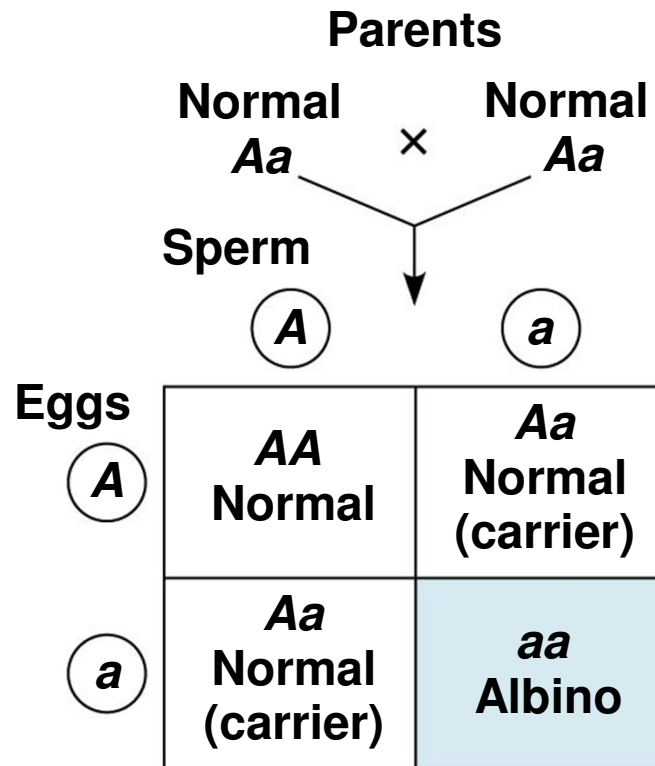
Free earlobe

(b) Is an attached earlobe a dominant or recessive trait?

Recessively Inherited Disorders

- Many genetic disorders are inherited in a recessive manner
- These range from relatively mild to life-threatening
- Recessively inherited disorders show up only in individuals homozygous for the allele
- **Carriers** are heterozygous individuals who carry the recessive allele but are phenotypically normal
 - Most people who have recessive disorders are born to parents who are carriers of the disorder

Figure 11.15



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- If the disorder is lethal before reproductive age or results in sterility, no homozygous individuals will reproduce
 - If a recessive allele that causes a disease is rare, then the chance of two carriers meeting and mating is low
 - Consanguineous (between close relatives) matings increase the chance of mating between two carriers of the same rare allele

Cystic Fibrosis

- **Cystic fibrosis** is the most common lethal genetic disease in the United States, striking one out of every 2,500 people of European descent
- The cystic fibrosis allele results in defective or absent chloride transport channels in plasma membranes leading to a buildup of chloride ions outside the cell
- Symptoms include mucus buildup in some internal organs and abnormal absorption of nutrients in the small intestine

Sickle-Cell Disease: A Genetic Disorder with Evolutionary Implications

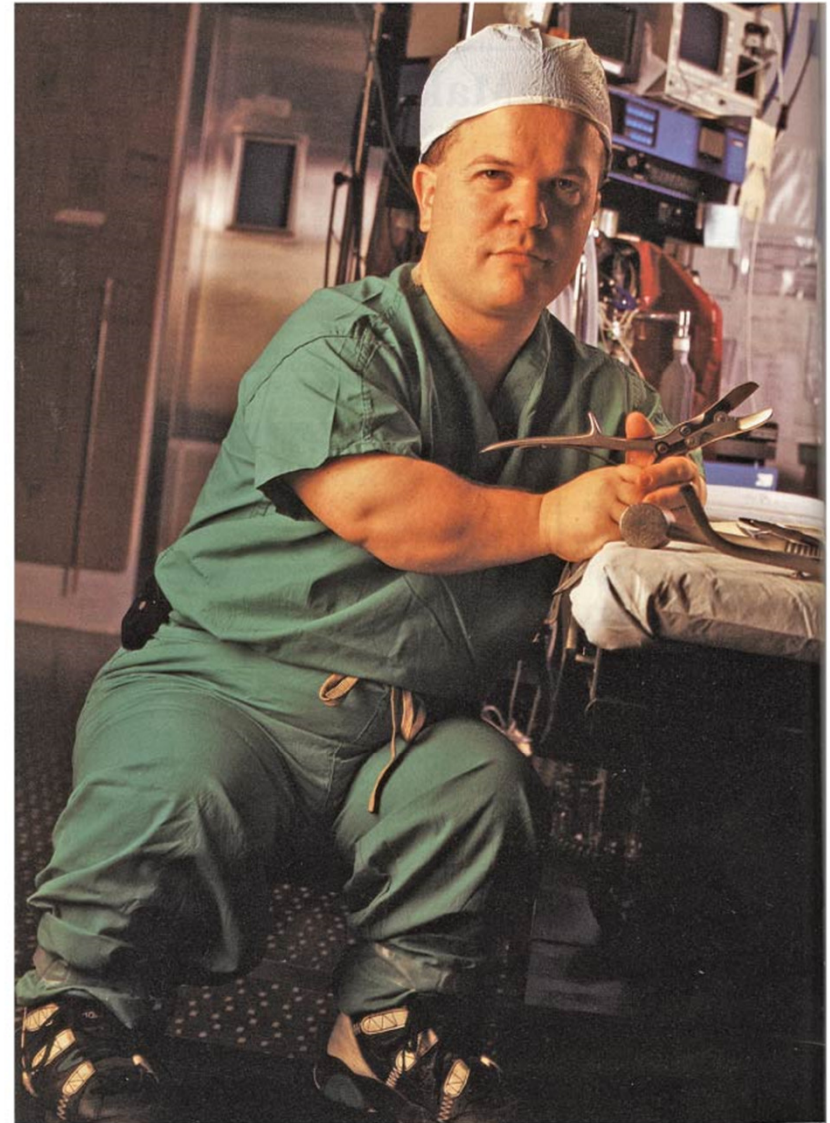
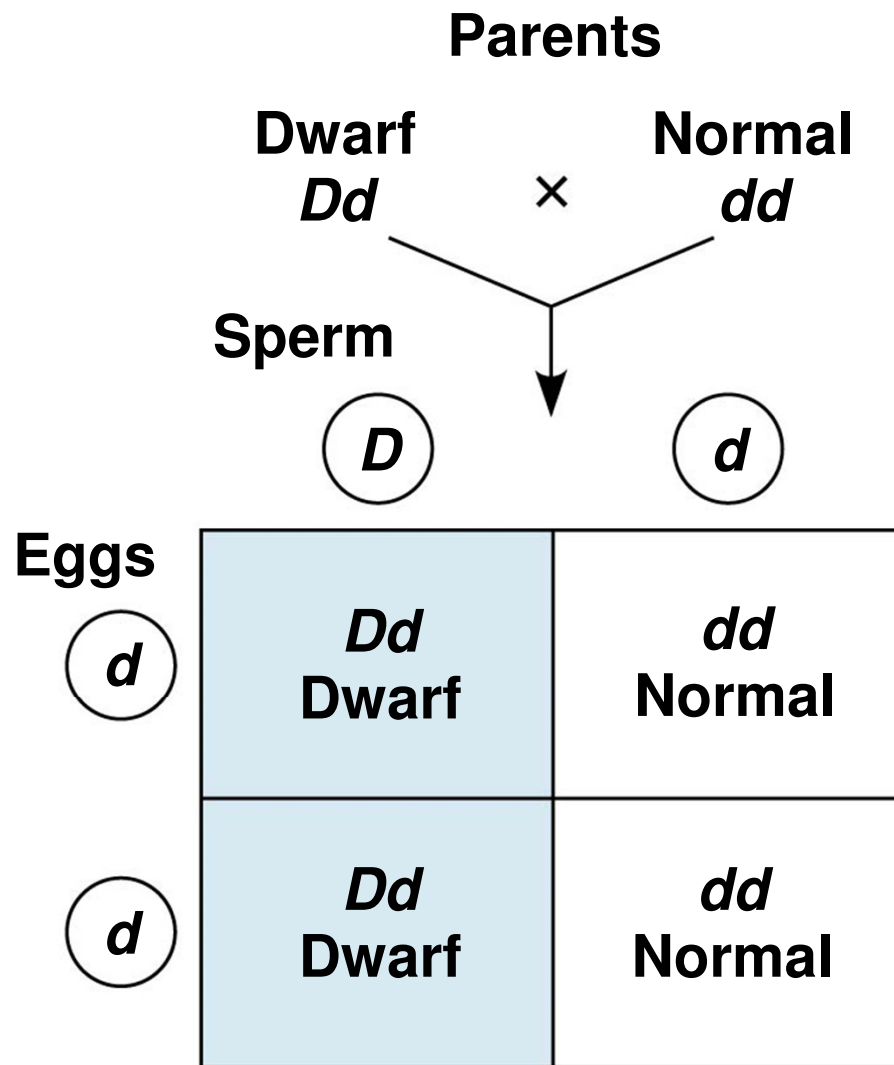
- **Sickle-cell disease** affects one out of 400 African-Americans
- The disease is caused by the substitution of a single amino acid in the hemoglobin protein in red blood cells
- In homozygous individuals, all hemoglobin is abnormal (sickle-cell)
- Symptoms include physical weakness, pain, organ damage, and even paralysis

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- Heterozygotes (said to have sickle-cell trait) are usually healthy but may suffer some symptoms
 - Organismal level: Normal allele is incompletely dominant to sickle cell allele
 - Presence of one sickle-cell allele can affect phenotype
 - Molecular level: Two alleles are codominant
 - Both normal and abnormal hemoglobins are made
 - About one out of ten African-Americans has sickle-cell trait, an unusually high frequency of an allele with detrimental effects in homozygotes
 - Heterozygotes are less susceptible to the malaria parasite, so there is an advantage to being heterozygous

Dominantly Inherited Disorders

- Some human disorders are caused by dominant alleles
 - Ex: Achondroplasia, a form of dwarfism
- Dominant alleles that cause a lethal disease are rare and arise by mutations in cells that produce eggs or sperm
 - Note: Lethal recessive alleles can be passed on by carriers
 - But lethal dominant alleles often cause death of individuals before they can reproduce

Figure 11.16



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- The timing of onset of a disease significantly affects its inheritance
 - **Huntington's disease** is a degenerative disease of the nervous system
 - The disease has no obvious phenotypic effects until the individual is about 35 to 45 years of age
 - Once the deterioration of the nervous system begins the condition is irreversible and fatal

Multifactorial Disorders

- Many diseases, such as heart disease, diabetes, alcoholism, mental illnesses, and cancer, have both genetic and environmental components
- Lifestyle has a tremendous effect on phenotype for cardiovascular health and other multifactorial characters

Genetic Counseling Based on Mendelian Genetics

- Genetic counselors can provide information to prospective parents concerned about a family history for a specific disease
- Each child represents an independent event in the sense that its genotype is unaffected by the genotypes of older siblings